directly concerned, attempted to restrict colonial trade within the bounds of their own possessions. Here geographical laws of trade clashed with those of political legislation. The latter were largely ignored, and illicit commerce flourished, in spite of attempted enforcement of restrictive measures. None of the legislation, culminating in the "Molasses Act" of 1733, all of which aimed to prevent trade between British colonies and foreign markets, was able to divert commerce from these natural channels which ruthlessly crossed political boundaries.

So strong were these geographical laws of trade that, in spite of all legislation to the contrary, commercial relations between these climatically complementary regions became too deeply entrenched to yield even in times of war. During the Seven Years' War, when the two European powers were in conflict, and even when the conflagration extended to their respective New World possessions, the colonies continued to exchange their wares. Civil and naval measures were alike fruitless. In fact the British colonists, though their royal governors sought to check this trade, were, as a people, thoroughly convinced that their interests lay in maintaining direct commercial relations with their West Indian clients of whatever nationality they might be. Thus entered the wedge which rapidly brought about a complete rupture between the people of the thirteen colonies and the government of the mother country.

Since the one product of the West Indies was sugar (with its by-products of molasses and rum), this history reveals, too, how important a rôle was played by a single commodity in the political relations of the British Empire at that time. Just as cotton, coal, iron, and petroleum have, time and time again, exerted a controlling influence in world politics, so sugar, as an item of international trade, was one of the important factors leading up to the separation of the colonies from England.

The Forest Resources of British Columbia

H. N. Whitford and R. D. Craig. **Forests of British Columbia.** viii and 409 pp.; maps, ills., index. Commission of Conservation, Canada. Ottawa, 1918. 10 x 6½ inches.

The province of British Columbia comprises about 355,000 square miles of territory and contains some of the most magnificent coniferous forests in the world. Owing to differences in topography and climate, however, the vegetation varies greatly—from almost luxuriant forest in the southern coastal region to semi-arid cactus and sagebrush growth on the interior plateaus—and there are approximately 200,000 square miles of country which are incapable of producing forests of commercial value.

British Columbia has been described as a "sea of mountains," and it has been estimated that the average elevation of the land surface for the province is over 3,500 feet. Considered from a physiographic standpoint three great montane regions or "belts," roughly paralleling the seacoast, are to be distinguished: the Western, Central, and Eastern Belts. Each of these belts is further subdivided into two or more mountain or plateau systems, and these, in turn, into specific ranges, groups, or plateaus. The Western Belt comprises (*a*) the Insular System, embracing the mountains on the islands adjoining the mainland; and (*b*) the Pacific System, embracing the Cascade Mountains (a small area lying east of the Fraser River) and the Coast Mountains (including the Bulkley Mountains), together with certain unnamed mountains, on the mainland. The Central Belt comprises (*a*) the Interior System, embracing the Fraser and Nechako plateaus and certain unnamed mountains and plateaus; (*b*) the Cassiar System, embracing the Stikine and Babine Mountains and certain unnamed mountains; and (*c*) the southern portion of the Yukon System, embracing the Yukon Mountains and various unnamed mountains and plateaus. The Eastern Belt comprises (*a*) the Rockies System, here being composed of the Rocky Mountains, and (*b*) the Columbia System, embracing the Selkirk, Monashee, and Cariboo Mountains. In addition to these various montane regions and systems, there are distinguished four great intermontane valleys or trenches: (*a*) the Coastal Trench, lying between the Insular System and the Pacific System; (*b*) the Selkirk Trench, separating the Monashee from the Selkirk Mountains; (*c*) the Purcell Trench, cutting lengthwise through the Selkirk Mountains; and (*d*) the Rocky Mountain Trench, separating the Eastern Belt from the Central. These various physiographic features, discussed in some detail, are clearly brought out on an accompanying map (for the southern portion of the province compare R. A. Daly's map accompanying

"The Nomenclature of the North American Cordillera between the 47th and 53rd Parallels of Latitude," *Geogr. Journ.*, Vol. 27, 1906, p. 588).

Correlated in a general way with the orographic features of the country, and even more important in their relation to the character and distribution of its forests, are a series of climatic belts: (*a*) the Coastal Belt, comprising the coastal islands and mainland and the western slopes of the Coast Mountains; (*b*) the Dry Belt, embracing the eastern slopes of the Coast Mountains and most of the region elsewhere designated as the Central (physiographic) Belt; (*c*) the Interior Wet Belt, centering in the region occupied by the Monashee and Cariboo Mountains; (*d*) the Rocky Mountain Belt, embracing primarily the western slopes of the Rockies; and (*e*) the Great Plains Belt, east of the Rockies. The Coastal Belt is characterized by high precipitation and by comparatively mild temperatures throughout the year; elsewhere, except in the interior wet belt where the precipitation in general is moderate, the climate is relatively dry with pronounced seasonal fluctuations in temperature. Owing mainly to differences in latitude and altitude, however, there are considerable variations in precipitation and temperature within these climatic belts.

The forests of the province are grouped into two divisions: Coastal and Interior. In the Coastal region, five different climatic types are distinguished, in the Interior about fifteen. The nature and composition of each type is briefly discussed, together with its climatic and soil relations, areal distribution, and various economic considerations. Numerous colored maps graphically depict the geographic distribution, not only of these various forest types, but also of the more important forest trees, to which a separate chapter is devoted.

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ROMAN ROADS IN BRITAIN

THOMAS CODRINGTON. **Roman Roads in Britain.** 3rd edit. ix and 317 pp.; maps, index. Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, London, 1918. 10 s. 8 x 5½ inches.

This book is a monument of devotion to detail, assiduity in investigation, and a firm grasp on all phases of the subject, making it a nearly exhaustive disclosure. Every authentic source of information has been drawn upon—Latin works contemporary with the Roman occupation, medieval authors, a copious array of the topographical or incidentally descriptive works of the more recent centuries, the multitudinous widely scattered reports of local investigation, and the testimony of the soil and surface at the present day—often, apparently, as interrogated by Mr. Codrington in person.

Its importance to history and political geography need not be enlarged upon. Perhaps the Saxons preferred the open country after they had settled down, using the Roman roads chiefly to mark boundaries, but the course of invasion must have been largely affected by these easy avenues of ingress, and the sites of battlefields must have been determined in some instances by their river crossings or the points where they penetrated or skirted rough defensible country. But even during the preceding three and a half centuries of imperial rule, at last merely nominal, the movements of the legionaries as well as every shifting of the native population and its commerce, with much beside, must have recorded itself in the opening of new roads, the extension or partial disuse of old ones, and their modifications in various ways.

Where so much has been given, it seems rapacious to call for more; but a series of maps showing these roads as they existed at stated intervals, say at the ends of the first, second, third, and fourth centuries, would be very welcome for purposes of comparison. The concluding chapter partly supplies this need, however, by its speculations as to the dates and order of road-making for the various highways, and the general map appended displays the entire system as now indicated without reference to time of origin or disuse. Perhaps no more could be done; and certainly it is a great deal.

The coins found far in the outskirts of the island indicate that the more important roads were put through early in the period of occupation. Some of them certainly lasted until long after it, as available means of communication and travel. The Laws of Edward the Confessor recite four of these great roads, Ermine Street, Watling Street, Icknield Street, and Fosse Way, as especially under the king's peace, and relate that two of them ran lengthwise of the kingdom, two across. Three of these were recognized in the reign of William the Conqueror. Ermine was the great northern road which ran from London to Lincoln and thence on to North Britain; Watling Street ran northwestward from Dover